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ABSTRACT

A study examined the effects of two organizational structural elements--gender appropriateness of job assignment and mix of women and men in a work group--upon the attitudes and behavior of Navy women. Effects of being assigned to a traditionally feminine or masculine job were examined and related to attrition, satisfaction, and reenlistment. Effects of being in a male-dominated, balanced, or female-dominated work group on satisfaction, expectations, and intentions toward remaining in the Navy were investigated. Samples of about 1000 men and 1000 women who joined the Navy in 1975 were followed throughout their first enrollment. Results showed that gender composition of work group was not related to the dependent measures. Being assigned to a job traditional for members of one's gender or to one that is nontraditional was not related to women's attrition, satisfaction, advancement, or reenlistment. Among men, rates of attrition and advancement were greater and reenlistment rates were lower for those in jobs considered nontraditional for women. Rates of advancement, migration, and completion of the first enlistment showed no gender differences. (Some conclusions are made based on the entire 4 years of the research.) (YLB)

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NAVY WOMEN IN TRADITIONAL AND NONTRADITIONAL JOBS: A COMPARISON OF SATISFACTION, ATTRITION, AND REENLISTMENT

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Samples of about 1,000 men and 1,000 women who joined the Navy in 1975 were followed throughout their first enlistment. In this final report, the effects of gender, traditionality of job, and gender composition of workgroup upon attrition, satisfaction, advancement, migration, and reenlistment of women were investigated. Whenever possible, comparisons were made to men's rates. Results showed that gender composition of workgroup was not related to the dependent measures. Also, being assigned to a job

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traditional for one's gender was not related to women's satisfaction and work behavior but it was significantly related to men's attrition, advancement, and reenlistment.

The following conclusions were based on the entire 4 years of the research, including findings of intervening reports:

1. Women enlisting in the Navy have traditional work values.

2. There is no difference in women's and men's rates of attrition, advancement, or migration to another type of job.

3. Women have lower absenteeism rates and higher honorable discharge rates than do men.

4. The differences found for men, but not women, by type of job are probably due to men in certain ratings being assigned to sea duty.

5. Men reenlist at higher rates than women. Marriage and children appear to increase men's retention rates, but not women's.

Several recommendations to increase women's reenlistment rates were made.

FOREWORD

This study was performed under task area 63.521.001.021, work unit .03.03 (Personnel Assimilation and Supervision). The research began in 1975 when a sample of about 1,000 women and 1,000 men reported for recruit training. Sample members have been followed throughout their first enlistment.

This report is the last in a series published concerning specific aspects of the sample's first enlistment. Previous reports have described enlistment motivation (NPRDC TR 77-20), pregnancy and time lost (NPRDC TR 78-35), the prediction of attrition (NPRDC TR 79-25), and reenlistment intentions (NPRDC SR 80-21). This report includes the findings of those previous studies in its conclusions and recommendations. Thus, it represents the completion of a longitudinal analysis of women's first enlistment and makes comparisons between women and men.

JAMES F. KELLY, JR.
Commanding Officer

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SUMMARY

Problem

The work behavior and satisfaction of Navy women is believed to be influenced by two factors controlled by the Navy; namely, whether the job they are assigned is traditional or nontraditional for females and the gender mix in their work group. Research in the civilian sector and the U. S. Army has shown that these two organizational variables can affect rates of migration from one job type to another, performance ratings, and attrition. If this finding applies to the Navy, changes in assignment policies could save personnel dollars.

Purpose

The primary purpose of this study was to determine whether these two organizational variables affect the work behavior and satisfaction of Navy women. A secondary purpose was to combine all the previously reported findings for the women in the study and provide an overview of their first enlistment, making comparisons to men when appropriate.

Approach

The sample consisted of about 1,000 women and 1,000 men who enlisted in the Navy in 1975. The analyses were based on data taken from surveys administered in 1976 and 1979 and from an Enlisted Survival Tracking File.

The independent variables of interest were gender, job traditionality, and gender composition of workgroup. The effects of job and gender on attrition, satisfaction, expectations, advancement, and reenlistment were investigated by means of chi-square analyses and two-way analyses of variance (ANOVA). The inquiry into the effect of workgroup composition on satisfaction, expectations, and reenlistment intention, based solely on the female sample, was subjected to a one-way ANOVA. A series of discriminant analyses was also conducted to determine whether the variables associated with women's reenlistment differed from those associated with men's.

Findings

Gender composition of the workgroup was not related to the three dependent measures studied. Being assigned to a job traditional for members of one's gender or to one that is nontraditional was not related to women's attrition, satisfaction, advancement, or reenlistment. However, among men, rates of attrition and advancement were greater and reenlistment rates were lower for those in jobs considered nontraditional for women.

Rates of advancement, migration, and completion of the first enlistment showed no gender differences. Women were less apt to reenlist for a second term than were men, however. Since the discriminant analyses conducted for each gender identified the same two variables as being the best discriminators between those reenlisting and those being discharged, the reason for the difference in retention cannot be explained in these data. Marriage did have a differential effect upon women and men's reenlistment, however.

Conclusions

Based on various analyses of these samples over a 4-year period, the following conclusions were drawn:

1. The majority of women enlisting in the Navy have traditional work values.

2. Approximately equal proportions of women and men leave the Navy prematurely, are advanced to petty officer, and migrate to another type of job during their first enlistment.

3. Women have lower absenteeism rates and higher honorable discharge rates than do men.

4. Assignment to jobs classified as nontraditional for women has no effect upon women's satisfaction, advancement, attrition, or reenlistment during the first enlistment, but a strong effect on men's. This difference may be due to the fact that most men are assigned to a ship while working in these jobs and most women are assigned to shore duty.

5. Men reenlist at higher rates than do women. Reasons for reenlisting show no gender differences, but reasons for leaving the Navy do. Marriage and children are associated with higher reenlistment rates for men, but not for women.

Recommendations

1. An attempt should be made to attract more women to nontraditional Navy jobs.

2. The effect of the Navy providing quality child care facilities should be evaluated.

3. Methods for improving the likelihood that dual military couples will be assigned to the same geographic area should be studied and implemented as feasible.

4. Recruiters should explain the difference between military and civilian life to prospective female enlistees and discourage certain women from enlisting.

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INTRODUCTION

Problem and Background

An organization's survival is dependent on three behavioral requirements: (1) people must join and remain in the organization, (2) people must dependably perform their tasks, and (3) people must go beyond the dependable performance and engage in creative, innovative behavior at work (Katz & Kahn, 1966). Whether or not these requirements are met depends on the joint interaction of the individual and the organization. This interaction or process is circular in that the organization and its structure impact on an individual's behavior and the individual's behavior impacts on the organization (Steers & Porter, 1979).

Kanter (1979) theorized that individual behavior within an organization is partially determined by organizational structures. He proposed that proportionality, or the ratio of one subgroup to another, was an important structure that affects individual behavior, and identified four basic distributions of subgroups within workgroups: uniform (100:0), skewed (85:15), tilted (65:35), and balanced (60:40 or 50:50). In skewed and tilted groups, it was hypothesized that the smaller, or minority subgroup, displayed certain behaviors and experienced stress due to being "different." The actions and performance of minority individuals tend to attract attention, leading them to feel pressured to conform and actively seek social invisibility. Minority group members find it more difficult than do majority group members to gain credibility and responsibility in the workgroup, becoming isolated or cut off from informal power alliances. Furthermore, they risk being perceived by others in the workgroup in a stereotypic manner. It is believed that the cumulative effect of such high visibility, power isolation, and stereotypic categorization impedes and places limits on individual work effectiveness, as well as increases personal stress.

Research in the workgroup setting has demonstrated that individuals are more likely to leave an organization if they experience stress because of role ambiguity or role conflict (Bedeian, Armenkais, & Curran, 1981). It is believed that people experience role stress if their work involves behaviors that are incongruent with societal expectations for members of their sex. Such work is often categorized as "nontraditional." Also, people can experience stress if their roles at home and on the job conflict. For example, working women often find that their jobs and families compete in ways that are difficult to accommodate. An obvious way to reduce role stress due to working in a nontraditional job is to transfer to a traditional one. To eliminate conflicting roles of job and family requires relinquishing one of these roles, usually that of work. Thus, role stress experienced by employees can impact upon an organization in terms of the costs associated with cross-training, absenteeism, and attrition.

During the decade of the 70s, the gender composition of many Navy workgroups changed due to the dramatic increase in the number of women in the military and the removal of certain restrictions on their assignment. Several studies were undertaken that concerned the effects of assigning women to jobs previously held only be men. Durning (1977) compared (1) the attitudes of women in nontraditional Navy jobs to the attitudes of those in traditional jobs and (2) the attitudes of women who worked in a workgroup with female peers to the attitudes of those who worked alone (solo). Her findings indicate that women in nontraditional jobs experience more resentment from male coworkers, are less satisfied with their supervisors, and perceive more job discrimination than do women working in traditional jobs. The former group, however, gains more self-esteem from its assigned work than does the latter. Very few differences were found between the responses of solo and nonsolo women.

Vail (1979) administered a survey on organizational effectiveness to and conducted interviews with women and men in 12 Navy units. For purposes of analysis, she divided the sample into all-male groups, mixed-gender groups with women in nontraditional jobs, and mixed-gender groups with women in traditional jobs. Vail found that women in nontraditional jobs expressed significantly higher levels of anxiety than did women in traditional jobs, although men were no more hostile toward one group than the other. The workgroups with women in nontraditional jobs were judged to be less effective than the other due to the lower amount of supervisory support they received.

Hinsdale, Collier, and Johnson (1978) interviewed 133 Navy woman petty officers. They then compared the women in traditional ratings with those in nontraditional ratings in terms of job satisfaction, satisfaction with the Navy, self-reported absenteeism, and reenlistment intentions. No significant differences were found. Analysis of the responses to an open-ended question asking what they liked the most about their job revealed that women in traditional ratings tended to have people-oriented jobs values; and those in nontraditional ratings, task-oriented values.

Thomas (1981) has been investigating what is one of the most nontraditional setting in the Navy where women are being introduced--aboard support ships. During the preintegration phase of the study, background and organizational variables were linked to beliefs about the work roles of women and attitudes toward a mixed-gender crew. One of the interesting findings reported was that, although nonrated (E-1 to E-3) men held the most traditional beliefs about women's roles in the workplace, they liked working with women more than any other group did.

The Army, in addition to conducting attitudinal studies of women in nontraditional job specialties, has been concerned with outcome measures. The migration of women and men to and from jobs classified as being traditionally feminine or traditionally masculine was one of these measures, due to the cost of cross-training personnel. In a study by Wood, Pappas, Lovely, and Johnson (1979), it was postulated that attempts to change one's occupational field would be a reflection of low job satisfaction, poor supervisory relationships, and inadequate career potential. The following paragraphs reveal the principle findings of this study:

> While there is no difference in the rates at which males and females apply to leave female nontraditional jobs, females are far more likely to be reclassified into traditionally female occupations. Women who migrated to female traditional occupations are more likely to project an Army career than those women who migrated out of female traditional occupations.
>
> . . .Although evaluation of the job did not vary by sex, career motivation as a reason for migration and career intentions toward the military did. Women who migrate to traditionally female occupations evaluate their occupational situation very positively. Conversely, men who migrate to nontraditional (male traditional or combat support) occupations tend to evaluate their jobs negatively. These two groups are motivated toward an Army career. . . .
>
> Finally, it would appear that both males and females seek to migrate to traditional female occupations primarily to integrate their Army work with their personal lives and attain a more satisfying work environment. They do so even at the risk of lower promotion opportunities. The study showed that those males who did migrate to

> combat support occupations did so primarily because of increased promotion opportunity even though the occupations they entered were not as satisfying as those they left. (pp. vi-vii)

In summary, the research to date indicates that Navy women in nontraditional ratings, as compared to women in traditional ratings, receive less support from their supervisors and experience more anxiety. However, they are just as satisfied with their actual work, if not more so. What all this means in terms of outcome measures of concern to the Navy is unknown. The review of the civilian and military literature suggests that nontraditionally assigned women suffer role ambiguity and stress, which could become manifested in attrition, migration to a traditional job, or failure to reenlist. Such behavioral outcomes are of great importance to plans for increasing the number of women in nontraditional ratings and need to be investigated.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of two organizational structural components--gender appropriateness of job assignment and mix of women and men in a workgroup--upon the attitudes and behavior of Navy women. First, the effects of being assigned to a traditionally feminine or a traditionally masculine job were examined and related to attrition, satisfaction, expectations, femininity, career advancement, migration, and reenlistment. Second, the effects of being in a male-dominated, balanced, or female-dominated workgroup on satisfaction, expectations, and intentions toward remaining in the Navy were investigated.

A second objective was to complete a longitudinal research project designed to compare the first enlistment of a sample of women and men who entered the Navy in 1975. Several reports utilizing this sample have been released. Issues which have been examined to date are enlistment motivation (Thomas, 1977), pregnancy and lost time (Olson & Stumpf, 1978), the relationship between mental level and unauthorized absence (Thomas & Rose, 1979), the prediction of attrition (Wilcove, Thomas, & Blankenship, 1979), and reenlistment intentions (Thomas, 1980).

PROCEDURE

Sample

The sample used in the longitudinal study originally consisted of 979 women and 1,011 men who entered recruit training in the summer of 1975.[1] Throughout the period of the research, subjects were lost due to attrition from the Navy, unknown whereabouts, failure to respond to a mailout survey, or returning an answer sheet that could not be machine-processed.

Sources of Data

To perform a longitudinal study based on data collected over a 5-year period, it was necessary to construct a single data bank. To do that, information was obtained through surveys and through the enlisted survival tracking file-longitudinal (ESTF-L). These data sources are described in the following paragraphs; the size of the samples obtained from each is shown in Table 1.

---

[1] For details on the selection and characteristics of the sample, see Thomas, 1977.

Table 1

Size of Samples in Each Data Source

Data Source	Date	Number Mailed		Usable Records Obtained	
		Women	Men	Women	Men
1976 Survey	11-76	818	0	477	0
ESTF-L	9-77	NA	NA	702	649
QUEST 5--8	3-79	592	609	280	192
Total		1,410	609	1,459	841

1976 Survey

After the women in the sample had been in the Navy for 1 year, a follow-up survey was mailed to them to determine whether their responses to specific items in the entry surveys were predictive of subsequent job satisfaction and level of performance (see Wilcove, Thomas, and Blankenship, 1979). The 1976 survey, which consisted of a series of questions about Navy experiences, was mailed in November 1976 to the 818 women still in the Navy (161 of the original 979 women had attrited).

The items from this survey that were entered into the data bank were those addressing dissatisfaction with (1) organizational climate and style, (2) meaningfulness of work, (3) job requirements, and (4) interpersonal relationships in the work environment (see Appendix A). Also, the two items addressing expectations of the Navy and reenlistment intentions were included.

QUESTS 5 through 8

The final series of questionnaires (QUESTS 5 through 8), which were mailed to the men and women in the sample in March 1979, were also used as a data source. These questionnaires were developed to examine sex differences in reenlistment intentions and to gather information about experiences during the first enlistment (Thomas, 1980; Wilcove, in press). QUESTS 5 and 6 were mailed to the women still in the Navy and QUESTS 7 and 8, to the men. These questionnaires consisted of from 140 to 150 items.

Those items in QUEST that were used in this study dealt with (1) workgroup composition, (2) advancement, (3) satisfaction, (4) femininity, and (5) reenlistment intentions (see Appendix B).

Enlisted Survival Tracking File-Longitudinal (ESTF-L)

The ESTF-L provides a chronological record of all enlisted personnel in the Navy, beginning with the fourth quarter of fiscal year 1977 (Gay & Borak, 1981). New information is added to the file quarterly, while all previous information is retained. The following variables were extracted from the most recent line of ESTF-L for the people in the sample who had not been discharged prior to the file's creation: social security number, sex, marital status, Class "A" school attended, number of enlistments, rating, pay grade, AFQT score, date of discharge, reason for discharge, and type of discharge.

Data Analysis

Construction of Variables

To perform the analyses planned for this study, certain dependent and independent variables had to be constructed. These included a dichotomous (traditional vs. nontraditional) job code, an advancement code, a satisfaction scale, a workgroup ratio, and four dissatisfaction factors. An explanation of how this was accomplished follows.

1. Dichotomous job code. The Department of Defense (DoD) classifies all military jobs into nine categories. Two of these categories, administration/clerical and medical, are considered traditional for women; the remainder are considered nontraditional, although many of the jobs in these groupings recently were opened to women. Appendix C presents the Navy ratings that fall within each of these categories.

Two job codes were constructed for each person in the sample. The first indicates whether the individual was working in a traditional or nontraditional job at the time she/he originally became rated; the second represents the individual's final, or most recent, Navy rating. The purpose for creating two codes was to permit a comparison of the proportion of women and men who cross-trained during their first enlistment. In analyses investigating the nature of the job as an independent factor, the most recent rating code was used.

2. Advancement code. Development of the advancement code was based on three steps. First, data for all personnel who were not eligible for advancement or who did not take the advancement test were eliminated from further analysis. Next, data for those who took the advanced test but failed it were removed. Finally, data for those who took and passed the test were coded to indicate those who had been advanced and those who had not.

3. Satisfaction scale. Six items in the QUEST measure satisfaction with six aspects of the Navy (i.e., the workgroup, supervisor, duties, life style, progress made to date, and opportunities for the future (items 5-10 in Appendix B). Responses to these six questions, which were answered on a five-point scale, were summed to yield a single score. The internal consistency reliability coefficient for the items is .76. A high score indicates high satisfaction with one's workgroup, Navy life, and opportunities.

4. Workgroup ratio. The proportion of women and men in a workgroup was determined so that certain interpersonal dynamics could be investigated. However, it was impossible to construct the four subgroups identified by Kanter (1979) because the available information was not explicit and the preponderance of males resulted in a dearth of tilted and skewed groups.

Two multiple-choice questions on the women's forms of QUEST were used to create the workgroup ratio variable. Responses to the first question provide the approximate number of women in the workgroup (i.e., 1-4 or 5-10); and those to the second, the approximate number of men. These ranges were translated into means. Ratios were determined by cross-tabulating the mean numbers of men and of women in each subject's workgroup, and used to assign the women to one of three groups: male-dominated, balanced, or female-dominated. While a workgroup ratio was created for the men in the sample, it was not used in any analysis because there were no men in female-dominated groups.

5. Dissatisfaction factors. The 27 items in the 1976 survey that probed job-related and personal dissatisfaction were factor-analyzed. Using an eigenvalue of 1.0 and higher as an acceptance level, four factors were identified (see Appendix A). Based on Hackman's (1977) description of categories of concern to workers, the factors were labeled as follows: (1) dissatisfaction with organizational climate or style, (2) dissatisfaction with job requirements, (3) dissatisfaction with meaningfulness of work, and (4) dissatisfaction with interpersonal relationships in the work environment.

Factors 2, 3, and 4 were not normally distributed. In accordance with the methodology outlined in Ferguson (1966), they were normalized using a linear transformation process prior to conducting any subsequent analysis.

Discriminant Analyses

Discriminant analysis is a statistical technique used to identify dimensions that distinguish between two or more groups. For this study, the technique was used in a descriptive manner, rather than the more usual predictive way. All discriminant analyses were conducted with Wilk's stepwise procedure (Nie, Hull, Jenkins Steinbrenner, & Bent, 1975); that is, only variables significantly adding to the discriminating power of the function were admitted. This type of procedure eliminates repetitive or useless information by reducing a full set of independent variables to a simpler set that is as good or better for discriminating between groups. However, random, idiosyncratic characteristics of the sample might be capitalized on in a stepwise reduction.

Other Analyses

Since the research focuses on how Navy women's career behavior compares to that of Navy men, statistical tests of the differences between the sexes also were performed. For the most part, this was done by means of chi-square analyses for categorical data and analyses of variance (ANOVAs) for continuous data.

RESULTS

Traditional Versus Nontraditional Job Assignment

Being assigned to a job considered appropriate for a member of one's sex is one of the structural components of interest in this study. While no hypotheses were postulated, it is believed that this factor can affect attrition, satisfaction, whether one's expectations are met, femininity, advancement, reenlistment, and migration from one job type to another.

The term "traditional" throughout this report uses women as the referrent and generally involves an assignment considered "nontraditional" for a civilian man. The sample on which the analyses by job type were based consisted of those members whose records were on the ESTF-L[2], since the rating indicator was taken from this tape. Nineteen percent of the women in this sample were assigned to nontraditional ratings, compared to 75 percent of the men.

---

[2]Although ESTF-L data were obtained for 702 women and 649 men, 124 women and 44 men (total = 168) did not have job codes.

Attrition

Table 2 presents the status of the sample during the last months of their enlistment, dichotomized by job category. For women, type of job had no effect on attrition during the 3rd and 4th years of their enlistment;[3] for men, attrition was significantly higher for those in nontraditional jobs. The comparison between women and men within job type yielded a highly significant difference for traditional jobs but not for nontraditional ones; that is, the survival rate of men in jobs traditionally held by Navy women was higher than that of women. However, it must be emphasized that the figures in Table 2 do not represent a 4-year survival rate nor are they based on the entire sample. Since the job identifier was taken from the ESTF-L, only members whose rating was recorded and who were in the Navy in the last quarter of fiscal year 1977 could be included in the analysis. Based on the original numbers enlisting in 1975, 39 percent of the women attrited, compared to 42 percent of the men.

Table 2

Status of Women and Men at End of their First Enlistment
Dichotomized into Traditional/Nontraditional Jobs

	Traditional Job		Nontraditional Job		
Sex	Survivor[a] (%)	Attritor (%)	Survivor[a] (%)	Attritor (%)	χ^2
Women (N=578)	86	14	85	15	.004
Men (N=605)	97	3	90	10	5.370*
χ^2	12.497**		2.271		

[a]These percentages represent survival during the last 2 years of a 4-year enlistment for personnel whose rating was the same as indicated on their record at the beginning of this period. Survival rates over the entire enlistment were 61 percent for women, versus 58 percent for men.

*$p < .05$
**$p < .001$

[3]Only one-third of the women attriting during their first 2 years were rated; 18 percent of these attritees were in nontraditional jobs, compared to 20 percent of those attriting during the last 2 years.

Satisfaction

Table 3, which presents results of the ANOVA for the satisfaction scale, shows that type of job did not exert a significant influence on responses to satisfaction items but sex did. The mean score of women was 21.22, compared to 19.58 for men. Since the interaction between job and sex was not significant, these results indicate that women were more satisfied with factors in the naval work environment than were men, regardless of their job classification. It should be noted that the responses of both genders to the satisfaction items may be inflated since many of the attritees (39%) had already left the Navy by March 1979 when the responses were given.

Table 3

ANOVA of Satisfaction Scale by Job Assignment and Sex

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F	p
Main Effects					
Job	18.800	1	18.800	0.751	.387
Sex	145.571	1	145.571	5.815	.016
Interaction	3.796	1	3.796	0.152	.697
Residual	10,364.355	414	25.035		

Expectations

The meeting of expectations was measured by a single item in QUEST (14 in Appendix B). Table 4 presents the responses of women and men to this question, dichotomized by type of job. For the sample as a whole, working in a traditionally feminine job was more consistent with preconceptions of the Navy than was working in a masculine job. This finding is primarily due to the "Yes" responses of the women in the sample. Men tended to think that traditional duty was somewhat consistent with their expectations of the Navy.

Table 4

Proportion of Women and Men by Job Category Whose Expectations of the Navy were Met

Expectations Met?	Women (N=233)		Men (N=178)		All (N=411)	
	Nontraditional	Traditional	Nontraditional	Traditional	Nontraditional	Traditional
No	22	15	25	16	24	16
Somewhat	59	46	58	72	58	51
Yes	19	38	17	12	18	33
χ^2	5.894		3.082		13.214*	

*p < .01

Femininity

Two items on QUEST address the possible inconsistency between working in a nontraditional job and remaining feminine (3 and 4 in Appendix B). Table 5, which presents the distributions of responses of the 229 women answering these items, shows that a significant difference was found for the first item, indicating that women who were working in the masculinely-oriented jobs placed a lower value on femininity than did those in feminine jobs. It is not known whether this difference reflects self-selection into the two types of work or results from functioning in these environments. However, the lack of a difference in the response pattern for the second item suggests that the former supposition is more accurate. In general, it appears that the majority of these women placed a high value on femininity and were able to remain feminine in the Navy.

Table 5

Femininity in Traditional and Nontraditional Jobs

Question	Percentage				χ^2
	Nontraditional		Traditional		
	Yes	No	Yes	No	
Do you place a high value on being, looking, and acting feminine?	71.7	28.3	86.9	13.1	5.157*
Can you remain as feminine as you want to be in the Navy?	68.1	31.9	79.6	20.4	2.201

*p < .05

Advancement

Ninety-seven percent of the QUEST respondents who were E-3 or above stated that they had taken the advancement test and passed it. Table 6, which presents the distributions of women and men in this group who actually were or were not advanced, shows that there was no difference in the promotion rates of these personnel.

Table 6

A Comparison of Women's and Men's Advancement

Advancement Status	Percentage		χ^2
	Women (N=137)	Men (N=132)	
Advanced	83.9	87.9	.565
Not Advanced	16.1	12.1	

Table 7 dichotomizes the data by whether these people were working in traditional or nontraditional jobs. Among women, advancement rates were very similar for the two job categories; among men and for the overall sample, working in a nontraditional job enhanced one's chances for promotion. This finding probably reflects the greater need, and possibly the lower desirability, of Navy jobs classified as traditionally masculine.

Table 7

Advancement of Women and Men by Job Category

Advancement Status	Percentage					
	Women		Men		Overall	
	Nontradi-tional	Tradi-tional	Nontradi-tional	Tradi-tional	Nontradi-tional	Tradi-tional
Advanced	85.2	82.9	92.5	75.7	90.8	81.0
Not Advanced	14.8	17.1	7.5	24.3	9.2	19.0
χ^2	0.000		5.451*		4.323*	

*$p < .01$

Reenlistment

Thomas (1980) discussed the reenlistment intention of 375 members of this sample for 11 rating groups and concluded that being assigned to a nontraditional job did not predispose women to leave the Navy. However, she did not compare the data in terms of the DoD classifications and actual reenlistment data was not available at that time. Nevertheless, the results presented in Table 8 are very similar to the earlier findings,

showing that a somewhat higher proportion of women assigned to nontraditional jobs reenlisted than did those assigned to traditional jobs. For men, a reverse pattern was found, indicating that those in traditionally feminine jobs had significantly higher retention rates than did those in traditionally masculine jobs. The proportion of men reenlisting was higher than that of women.

Table 8

Reenlistment of Women and Men by Job Category

Status at End of Obligated Service (EAOS)	Percentage					
	Women		Men		Across Jobs	
	Nontraditional	Traditional	Nontraditional	Traditional	Women (N=594)	Men (N=583)
Reenlisted	20	17	22	34	18	25
Discharged at EAOS	80	83	78	65	82	75
χ^2	.4115		7.551*		9.959*	

*p < .01

Since job category was not related to women's reenlistment, the possibility that marital and parental status might play a decisive role was investigated. The number of claimed dependents was combined into four categories--no primary dependents, spouse only, children (with and without a spouse), and military spouse (with or without children). Unfortunately, single parenthood could not be included as a category because of the manner in which the data are coded on the ESTF-L. The results, shown in Table 9, indicate that dependency status was not related to women's reenlistment, but it did influence men's decisions. Moreover, a significant difference was obtained (untabled) in the gender by dependency comparison of those who reenlisted (χ^2 (1,2) = 8.039, p < .02).

Table 9

Reenlistment Rates of Women and Men
With and Without Dependents

Dependency Status	Percentage				
	Women		Men		
	Reenlisting	Not Reenlisting	Reenlisting	Not Reenlisting	χ^2
No Dependents	16	84	20	80	1.349
Spouse only	15	85	30	70	7.001*
Children	21	79	33	67	1.882
Military spouse	21	79	--	--	
	χ^2 = 3.004		χ^2 = 10.712*		

*p < .01

Migration

Migration from a job for which a person has been trained to an entirely different job is costly in terms of duplication of training dollars and time needed to reach proficiency. It is popularly believed, and there is some evidence to support this belief (ASD (MRA&L), 1977), that military women migrate more than men do, particularly from nontraditional to traditional feminine jobs. This sample provided an unique opportunity to explore this issue for a Navy sample since the job codes of the members were available for two periods in time—1977 and 1979.

The frequencies presented in Table 10 show that identical and very small numbers of women and men changed their ratings during their first enlistment (1.2% of the sample). While no statistical tests could be performed on such a small group, it is apparent that men tended to stay within the same job type when they cross-trained, whereas women were divided among those who shifted from a nontraditional to a traditional job and those whose job type remained unchanged. Thus, there would appear to be some support for the belief that women, more so than men, tend to migrate out of nontraditional jobs. Such a conclusion, however, ignores the fact that the openings for the sexes differ greatly. For example, during the period between October 1977 and September 1978, when cross-training of this group would have occurred, 771 school seats were reserved for nonrecruit women on active duty (BUPERS, 1977). Of these seats 65.2 percent were for traditional ratings and 34.8 percent, for nontraditional ratings. Thus, women had almost twice as many opportunities to receive cross-training in a traditional rating than in a nontraditional rating.

Table 10

Migration Rates and Type of Job Change for Women and Men in Their First Enlistment

Type of Job Migrating to	Number Migrating[a]		Number of Openings Available[b]	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
Traditional	3	1	503	1723
Nontraditional	1	1	268	5038
No change in type	3	5	—	—
Total	7	7	771	7029

[a]Information was available for 582 women and 583 men; only 7 members of each sex migrated.

[b]Taken from BUPERSNOTE 1510 of 9 May 1977, FY 78 Fleet "A" School Plan.

Workgroup Composition

The second structural component being investigated was the proportion of women and men in the workgroup. As mentioned earlier, Kanter's gender ratios could not be used because of inadequate numbers of certain types of groups. Therefore, the analyses investigating the effect of proportionality on women's organizational behavior and perceptions relied on three categories only: (1) male-dominated groups (60% or more

men), balanced groups (40-59% men or women), and female-dominated groups (60% or more women). The actual numbers of women in the sample who were members of such workgroups were 156, 75, and 28 respectively.

Satisfaction

A one-way ANOVA was performed to determine what effect gender mix had on the satisfaction scale. Table 11 shows that the number of male coworkers did not exert a significant influence on how women responded to these items.

Table 11

One-Way ANOVA of Satisfaction by Workgroup Composition

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F	p
Workgroup composition	24.177	2	12.089	.488	.615
Residual	6322.986	255	24.796		
Total	6347.163	257	24.697		

Expectations

Table 12 presents the one-way ANOVA for having one's expectations about the Navy met. Again, a nonsignificant effect was obtained for the independent variable of interest.

Table 12

One-Way ANOVA of Expectations Being Met
By Workgroup Composition

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F	p
Workgroup composition	.492	2	.246	.483	.618
Residual	130.019	255	.510		
Total	130.512	257	.508		

Reenlistment Intention

Table 13 presents the distributions of responses to the reenlistment item for women in the three types of workgroups. While there was a tendency for women in female-dominated groups to expect to continue at higher rates than did the other groups, the differences were not significant.

Table 13

Reenlistment Intentions of Women in Workgroups
Having Different Gender Mixes

Reenlistment Intention	Percentage		
	Male-dominated Group	Balanced Group	Female-dominated Group
Not reenlist	62.8	56.0	57.1
Unsure	17.9	25.3	17.9
Reenlist	19.2	18.7	25.0

$\chi^2 = 2.351$

Discriminant Analyses

Three discriminant analyses were performed to distinguish between (1) women planning to reenlist and those expecting to leave the Navy at the end of their first enlistment, (2) women who actually reenlisted and those who did not, and (3) men who actually reenlisted and those who did not. One significant function was produced in each of these analyses. Only the two most significant discriminating variables from each function are reported in the tables that follow because of the small amount of explained variance. In addition, some of the less discriminating variables in the function appear to be acting as suppressor variables and are difficult to interpret.

Women's Intentions to Reenlist

Reenlistment intent was first measured in the 1976 Survey, or a little over a year after recruit training. Seven variables were included in the discriminant analysis: Armed Forces Qualification Test (AFQT) score, gender appropriateness of job, fulfillment of expectations about the Navy (in 1976), dissatisfaction with organizational climate, dissatisfaction with job requirements, dissatisfaction with meaningfulness of work, and dissatisfaction with interpersonal relationships in the work environment. The discriminant function indicated that four of these variables distinguished between the two groups--organizational climate, AFQT score, interpersonal relationships, and expectations. The two variables that were most effective are presented in Table 14, along with their respective Wilk's lambdas and univariate F scores. Wilk's lambda, a measure of how well a variable distinguishes between groups, shrinks as the accuracy of the variable increases.

Table 14

Two Most Significant Variables Obtained in Discriminant Analysis of Women's Reenlistment Intentions (N = 456)

Variable	Wilk's Lambda	Univariate F	p
Dissatisfaction with organizational climate	.9552	21.30	.000
AFQT score	.9915	3.19	.049

Note. Degrees of freedom = 1, 454

Women who did not intend to reenlist were more dissatisfied with the overall organizational climate than were those who intended to reenlist. The items having loadings of over .60 in this factor measure dislike of the Navy life style, discipline, and regulations. Thus, these women were chaffed by the military aspects of the Navy rather than by their jobs or peers. Interestingly, women who planned to reenlist had lower AFQT scores than did those expecting to leave the Navy.

Women's Reenlistment Behavior

Eleven variables were included in the discriminant analysis to identify the factors associated with women's reenlistment behavior. These variables were the six items assessing satisfaction with the Navy work environment and life style,[4] pay grade, gender appropriateness of job, AFQT score, fulfillment of expectations about the Navy, and sex ratio in the workgroup. The resultant discriminant function included pay grade, three of the satisfaction items, gender appropriateness of job, and fulfillment of expectations. The two variables that were most effective in distinguishing between women who actually reenlisted and those who did not were pay grade and satisfaction with Navy lifestyle, as shown in Table 15.

Table 15

Two Most Significant Variables Obtained in Discriminant Analysis of Women's Reenlistment Behavior (N = 701)

Variable	Wilk's Lambda	Univariate F	p
Pay grade	.9383	45.99	.000
Satisfaction with Navy life	.9839	11.43	.000

Note. Degrees of freedom = 1, 699

[4]While an overall satisfaction scale was used in the ANOVAs, it was decided to treat the items individually in the discriminant analysis.

Women who reenlisted were more likely to be at a higher pay level than were those who did not reenlist, indicating that they had achieved greater success in their jobs. Similarly, those reenlisting were more satisfied with their life style as Navy women than were those who left.

Men's Reenlistment Behavior

The variables used to identify factors associated with the reenlistment behavior of men were the same as those used in the discriminant analysis for women, except for sex ratio in the work group. The resultant male discriminant function included 6 of these 10 variables: pay grade, three of the satisfaction items, AFQT score, and gender appropriateness of job. The two variables exhibiting the greatest effectiveness in discriminating between men who actually reenlisted and those who did not were identical to those found for women, as shown in Table 16. Similarly, men who reenlisted had achieved a higher pay grade and were more satisfied with the Navy life style than were those who did not.

Table 16

Two Most Significant Variables Obtained in Discriminant Analysis of Men's Reenlistment Behavior (N = 642)

Variable	Wilk's Lambda	Univariate F	p
Pay grade	.9243	52.42	.000
Satisfaction with Navy life	.9598	26.79	.000

Note. Degrees of freedom = 1, 640

DISCUSSION

The authors did not intend to confirm or discount hypotheses in this final study of a group of women enlisting in 1975. Instead, they intended to determine whether two organizational structures, gender mix in the workgroup and traditionality of job, affect women's attitudes and certain of their work behaviors. Type of military job was the primary variable of interest because of the prevalent belief that women, both within the military and industry, experience stress in jobs that are nontraditional for members of their sex. Their work behavior, in terms of attrition, change of occupation, and retention, is believed to be influenced by this dissatisfaction.

Since data were collected for both women and men, comparisons between the genders could be made for the behaviors and attitudes being investigated. Surprisingly, no significant differences based on job type were obtained with the women's sample, but several were obtained with the men's. That is, women's satisfaction, attrition, reenlistment, ability to maintain a desired level of femininity, and advancement were not related to whether they are working in a traditionally feminine or a traditionally masculine job. The importance they attached to being feminine, however, does vary significantly, suggesting that self-selection into these dichotomous job types is occurring.

For men, attrition and advancement rates are higher and reenlistment rates are lower in jobs that are nontraditional for women than for jobs that are traditional. A major reason for this lower reenlistment and higher attrition probably lies in the quality of work life found in jobs that include significant amounts of sea duty, as the nontraditional ratings do. This, in turn, results in enhanced advancement opportunities, since there are fewer people against whom to compete. Because only a very small number of women answering the survey were serving on sea duty, the majority of those working in nontraditional ratings were functioning in a more hygienic[5] environment than were men in such ratings. Thus, the differences between men by job type may not be a reflection of the work they are doing but, rather, of the conditions under which they are doing it.

The second factor being investigated, gender composition of the workgroup, was not related to women's satisfaction, belief that their expectations about the Navy had been met, or intentions toward reenlistment. Especially noteworthy is the fact that women in male-dominated workgroups are no more dissatisfied with the Navy and no less likely to reenlist than are other Navy women. These results support Durning's (1977) earlier finding of no difference in the satisfaction of solo and nonsolo women. The typology of workgroups used in this study was crude, however. Because the multiple-choice response format for the two items probing the number of men and women in the respondent's workgroup was in terms of a range rather than a discrete number, it was not possible to develop the ratios described by Kanter (1979). Therefore, these findings do not necessarily rule out the existence in a Navy setting of the dynamics associated with tokenism found in a civilian organization. When using categories of male-dominated, female-dominated, and balanced groups, however, no differences were found in the dependent measures.

The results show that only a few women and men in their first enlistment (1.2%) change their ratings. These data are not directly comparable to the Wood et al. (1979) examination of migration among Army personnel (.3% migration rate), since they included enlisted personnel of all pay grades during a 1-year period. However, the basic trend among women in both services is the same; that is, more migrate to a traditional job from a nontraditional one than vice versa. The probable explanation for this tendency is the greater number of openings in traditional jobs for women, although work preference may play a role.

The proportions of women and men completing their 4 years of obligated service and being advanced to petty officer show no gender differences. There is, however, a highly significant difference in rates of reenlistment for a second term, in that women are less apt to remain in the Navy than are men. The reasons for this difference are difficult to ascertain. At the end of 1 year of service, the women who did not intend to reenlist for a second term expressed dissatisfaction with the organizational climate and style of the Navy and had higher aptitude scores than did those who planned to continue. At the end of 3½ years, the variables that discriminated best for both genders between those reenlisting and those leaving the Navy were pay grade and satisfaction with Navy life. Thus, adjustment to what is unique to a military organization appears to be critical to retention.

The possibility that marriage and parenthood might lower the reenlistment rates of women was investigated. While the findings indicate that there are no differences among

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[5]Hygenic aspects of work are such things as good hours, pleasant physical surroundings, and convenient travel to and from work.

women based on dependents, comparisons with men of similar status suggest that the pattern for women is atypical. Men with wives are more apt to reenlist than are unmarried men, and those with children have the highest retention rates of all. The reason for this finding is probably economic. Personnel with dependents receive more pay and benefits than do those without dependents. Since civilian employers make no such distinction, married personnel in their early 20s probably earn more money in the military than in civilian life, particularly when they also have children to support. Thus, single men and women who do not have a monetary incentive to stay in the military tend to leave and at similar rates. Many married women who have working husbands find that the stress of juggling roles for which they have primary responsibility (homemaker, parent, Navy enlisted) is not worth the effort. Thus, they drop the role that is easiest to shed when a decision is required of them--that of being in the Navy.

CONCLUSIONS

This report concludes an investigation of the first enlistment of a group of personnel entering the Navy in 1975. The original samples consisted of 979 women and 1,010 men who were surveyed during their first week of recruit training. The women were surveyed again at 12 and 18 months and both groups participated in a final survey mailed to them 3 months before the expiration of their enlistment. The purpose of this longtitudinal study was to determine whether women's experiences and behaviors during their first enlistment are similar to men's. Such information is needed to develop personnel projections for a mixed-gender naval force.

The first in the series of reports published from this project described the background of the women and men, measured their occupational values, and questioned their motivation for enlisting in the Navy (Thomas, 1977). It was concluded that, while backgrounds differ, motives for joining the Navy are the same. Members of the two sexes also differ in what they value in a job. Men appear to be concerned with rewards (advancement, recognition), whereas women express a need for people-oriented, altruistic work. Several common stereotypes were supported by the data; namely, the women's desire for a clean, cheerful working environment and dislike for work involving machinery or taking physical risks.

The second report, which was initiated to look at the problems associated with pregnancy (Olson & Stumpf, 1978), compared attrition rates and amount of time lost from the job for members of the samples. The results indicate that women are more likely to be absent for medical reasons and men for disciplinary reasons.[6] While equal proportions of both genders leave the Navy 2 years after enlisting, the types of discharges awarded them differ greatly: 83 percent of the women in this sample were honorably discharged, compared to 30 percent of the men.

The third report explored the utility of items in the entry survey for predicting women's attrition during the first 18 months (Wilcove, Thomas, & Blankenship, 1979). The types of items that are related to premature departure from the Navy measure mental health, personal history, occupational needs and enlistment motivation. The profile of a female who is apt to attrite is that of a woman who has psychosomatic symptoms (sleeping difficulties, chronically tired), dates infrequently, prefers to work alone, and joins the Navy to help her family financially.

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[6]The prorated number of days lost per year was 4.22 for women, versus 7.03 for men.

The fourth report, an investigation of reenlistment motivation, concluded that, at 6 months before the expiration of their first enlistment, similar proportions of women and men intend to remain in the Navy (Thomas, 1980).[7] Both genders reenlist for the opportunities, job satisfaction and security, and fringe benefits/travel. Their reasons for not reenlisting differ, however. Role stress and better opportunities as a civilian are the reasons why over half of the women leave the Navy. Men cite inadequate pay and incentives, lack of opportunity, rigid policies, stress, poor supervision, and lack of job satisfaction as their major reasons for leaving the Navy.

Based on the analyses conducted on these samples over a 4-year period, the following conclusions are drawn:

1. Women who enlist in the Navy hold traditionally feminine work values, although the Navy needs a different kind of woman--one who wants to work with machinery or deal with data, rather than solely with people.[8]

2. Some elements of work behavior of women and men during their first enlistment are relatively similar. Approximately equal numbers are advanced to petty officer, migrate to another rating, and leave the Navy prior to completing their obligated service.

3. Women have lower absenteeism rates than do men, even when time lost due to pregnancy is included in the comparison. This is because women are far less apt to be in an unauthorized absence (UA) or disciplinary status than are men. If entry standards for the two genders were made equal, this difference would still exist since men's UA rates at all mental levels were found to be more than four times greater than those of women.[9]

4. Being assigned to a nontraditional rating has no effect on women's satisfaction, advancement, attrition, or reenlistment. For men, however, working in a nontraditional (for women) job versus a traditional one results in higher attrition and advancement rates, along with lower reenlistment rates. This difference is probably a reflection of the work environment rather than the work itself, since the majority of such men are on sea duty during their first enlistment.

5. More men than women reenlist for a second term. While the reasons given for reenlisting are the same for both sexes, the reasons for leaving the Navy are different. Dissatisfaction with the military life style appears to be a factor in women's decisions. Married men are more likely than single men to reenlist, whereas men with children are the most likely of all. Despite being eligible for the same economic benefits as men with dependents, women with husbands and children leave the Navy at the same high rate as single personnel. Thus, for women, the monetary incentives do not appear to compensate for the perceived lack of opportunity and role stress associated with continuing in the Navy.

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[7] As shown in this study, fewer women and more men followed through on their original intentions.

[8] Forty percent of all technical school seats reserved for female personnel in FY82 are in the nontraditional areas.

[9] For a more comprehensive discussion of unauthorized absence among men and women enlisting in 1975, see Hoiberg and Thomas, 1982.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are based on the overall results of the longitudinal study of the first enlistment of a group of female recruits, rather than just this final analysis of the effects of job assignment and gender mix on certain aspects of work behavior.

1. Now that it has been demonstrated that women in nontraditional jobs are no more apt to attrite or migrate than are those in traditional jobs, an effort should be made to attract such women to the Navy. At the end of fiscal year 1981, nine percent of all Navy women were serving aboard ship. Within the next 3 years, that proportion will more than double, and many women serving ashore will have had a sea duty tour. Recruiting advertisements ought to reflect this change and appeal to women who want to work with equipment, rather than primarily with people.

2. Navy management is already attempting to alleviate the problems of military parents by providing on-base quality child care (a recommendation based on this research made in an earlier article). It is recommended that the impact of this effort on retention rates be determined. If such facilities are shown to be cost-effective, the program should be expanded to other bases.

3. Married Navy women have retention rates significantly below those of married men. The majority of such women are married to other active duty personnel and they are experiencing considerably more family separation because of two rotation schedules than they would as civilian wives of Navy men. While it is the policy of the Department of the Navy to attempt to collocate such couples, the implementation of this policy is dependent upon the needs of the service and the rotation patterns of the couple. It is recommended that methods for improving the likelihood that dual military couples be assigned to the same geographic area be studied and implemented as feasible. The Air Force Join Spouse Program should be examined for possible adaptation to meet the unique personnel requirements of the Navy.

4. Since dissatisfaction with the Navy life style appears to be an important factor in women's retention, particularly among those with high aptitude scores, a greater effort should be made to provide young women with realistic information about the Navy prior to their enlistment. The training of recruiters should include instruction on the critical differences between military and civilian life from a woman's perspective. Recruiters should be urged to explain these differences to prospective enlistees and to discourage those who feel adjusting to the military would be a problem. Recruiting goals for women are sufficiently low to permit such selectivity.

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APPENDIX A

ITEMS IN THE 1976 SURVEY CONTRIBUTING TO THE DISSATISFACTION FACTORS

Items in the 1976 Survey Contributing to
the Dissatisfaction Factors

Factor and Items		Correlation
Factor 1:	Dissatisfaction with organizational climate and style	
	Navy lifestyle	.70
	Navy discipline	.62
	Regulation of my life	.60
	Not being treated with respect by supervisors	.48
	Lack of privacy	.45
	Wearing the uniform	.40
	Living in base housing	.38
Factor 2:	Dissatisfaction with meaningfulness of work	
	Job not challenging enough	.70
	Dislike of my work	.63
	No suitable assignment available	.58
	Lack of visible results of my work	.50
	Not enough work to keep me busy	.49
	Insufficient job training	.33
Factor 3:	Dissatisfaction with job requirements	
	Job too emotionally demanding	.61
	Job too physically demanding	.58
	Too much work to get done	.54
	Job too intellectually demanding	.45
	Not enough supervision or direction	.43
Factor 4:	Dissatisfaction with interpersonal relationships in the work environment	
	Not getting along with my work group	.67
	People I work with	.58
	Feeling like a misfit	.42
Items whose loadings were less than .30:		
	Friendships that ended too quickly	
	Loss of my personal identity	
	Dislike of location where stationed	
	Living in different places	
	Becoming emotionally involved with a Navy man	
	Navy drug and alcohol policies	

APPENDIX B

ITEMS IN QUEST SURVEY USED IN ANALYSES

Items in QUEST Survey Used in Analyses

1. How many women are presently in your immediate workgroup, counting any civilians?

   A. 1 - 3
   B. 4 - 8
   C. 9 - 15
   D. 16 - 25
   E. Over 25

2. How many men are presently in your immediate workgroup, counting any civilians?

   A. None
   B. 1 - 3
   C. 4 - 8
   D. 9 - 15
   E. Over 15

3. Do you place a high value on being, looking, and acting feminine?

   A. Yes, most of the time
   B. Around men, yes, but not around women
   C. I don't care if I'm feminine or not
   D. No, I try not to be feminine

4. Could you remain as feminine as you wanted to in the Navy?

   A. Yes
   B. No

All in all, how do you feel about the following at your present (or most recent) duty station?

Please use the Coding System below to answer Questions 5 through 10

A = Very dissatisfied
B = Somewhat dissatisfied
C = Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied
D = Fairly satisfied
E = Very satisfied

5. The people in your workgroup?

6. Your supervisor?

7. Your duties?

8. Navy life?

9. The progress you have made in the Navy up to now?

10. Your chance for getting ahead in the Navy in the future?

Please use the Coding System below to answer Questions 11 through 13.

A = This has happened to me in the Navy
B = This has not happened to me in the Navy

11. I failed to pass an advancement test.

12. I was not recommended for advancement.

13. I passed the advancement exam but was not advanced.

14. Were your expectations of the Navy met?

A. Things were pretty much as I expected.
B. It was somewhat like I expected.
C. No, the Navy was nothing like I expected.

15. What are your reenlistment intentions?

A. I intend to reenlist after finishing my enlistment.
B. I do not intend to reenlist after finishing my enlistment.
C. Undecided.

APPENDIX C

DOD JOB CLASSIFICATIONS AND NAVY RATINGS

DOD JOB CLASSIFICATIONS AND NAVY RATINGS

Job Classifications	Navy Ratings
	Traditional
Administration and Clerical	Cryptologic Technician (CT) Data Processing Technician (DP) Disbursing Clerk (DK) Information Specialist (JO) Intelligence Specialist (IS) Legalman (LN) Mess Management Specialist (MS) Navy Counselor (NC) Personnelman (PN) Postal Clerk (PC) Radioman (RM) Religious Program Specialist (RP) Ship's Serviceman (SH) Storekeeper (SK) Yeoman (YN)
Medical	Dental Technician (DT) Hospital Corpsman (HM)
	Nontraditional
Ordnance	Fire Control Technician (FT) Gunner's Mate (GM) Mineman (MN) Missile Technician (MT) Torpedoman's Mate (TM)
Miscellaneous	Draftsman (DM) Lithographer (LI) Musician (MU)
Construction	Builder (BU) Construction Electrician (CE) Construction Mechanic (CM) Engineering Aide (EA) Equipment Operator (EO) Steelworker (SW) Utilitiesman (UT)

Job Classifications	Navy Ratings
	Nontraditional (Cont'd.)
Aviation	Aerographer's Mate (AG)
	Aircrew Survival Equipmentman (PR)
	Air Traffic Controller (AC)
	Aviation Antisubmarine Warfare Operator (AW)
	Aviation Antisubmarine Warfare Technician (AX)
	Aviation Boatswain's Mate (AB)
	Aviation Electrician's Mate (AE)
	Aviation Electronics Technician (AT)
	Aviation Fire Control Technician (AQ)
	Aviation Machinist's Mate (AD)
	Aviation Maintenance Administrationman (AZ)
	Aviation Ordnanceman (AD)
	Aviation Storekeeper (AK)
	Aviation Structural Mechanic (AM)
	Aviation Support Equipment Technician (AS)
	Photographer's Mate (PH)
	Tradevman (TD)
Engineering and Hull	Boiler Technician (BT)
	Electrician's Mate (EM)
	Engineman (EN)
	Gas Turbine Technician (GS)
	Hull Maintenance Technician (HT)
	Interior Communications Electrician (IC)
	Machinery Repairman (MR)
	Machinist's Mate (MM)
	Molder (ML)
	Patternmaker (PM)
Deck	Boatswain's Mate (BM)
	Electronic Warfare Technician (EW)
	Master At Arms (MA)
	Ocean Systems Technician (OT)
	Operations Specialist (OS)
	Quartermaster (QM)
	Signalman (SM)
	Sonar Technician (ST)
Electronics and Instruments	Data Systems Technician (DS)
	Electronics Technician (ET)
	Instrumentman (IM)
	Opticalman (OM)
	Strategic Weapons System Electronics (SWS)

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